

Ind. History
INDIANA ROOM
PAMPHLET FILE

A Brief History of Indiana

REFERENCE
DO NOT CIRCULATE

Indiana Historical Bureau

This pamphlet is one of several popular and school publications prepared and distributed by the Indiana Historical Bureau. It will be sent free upon request to individuals. High schools in the state asking for a quantity for class use are asked to refund postage. Organizations wanting ten or more copies will be charged ten cents apiece.

A BRIEF HISTORY *of* INDIANA

By

DONALD F. CARMONY

Indiana University, Division of Adult Education

AND

HOWARD H. PECKHAM

Indiana State Historical Bureau

Indianapolis

INDIANA HISTORICAL BUREAU

1953

A BRIEF HISTORY
OF INDIANA

*(Fourth edition, illustrated by
Clotilde Embree Funk)*

CONTENTS

I.	EUROPEAN COLONY, 1679-1783 . . .	5
	First Inhabitants	
	The French Arrive	
	French Settlement	
	Colonial Wars	
	Pontiac's War	
	An English Wilderness	
	Clark and Western Warfare	
II.	TERRITORIAL DAYS, 1783-1816 . . .	12
	British Influence	
	Indian Relations, 1783-1795	
	Land Problem and Policy	
	Government of the Northwest Territory	
	Indiana Territory, 1800-1816	
	Tippecanoe and the War of 1812	
	Early Settlers and Settlements	
	Indiana Enters the Union, 1816	
III.	PIONEER STATE, 1816-1865 . . .	23
	Population Growth	
	Removal of the Capital	
	Making a Living	
	Travel and Transportation	
	Education and Religion	
	Political Parties and Issues	
	The Civil War and Its Aftermath	
IV.	MODERN DEVELOPMENT, 1865-1953 . . .	36
	Population Changes	
	Agriculture Mechanized	
	Manufacturing and Mining	
	Transportation Development	
	Modern Education and Churches	
	Expanding State Government	
	In National Politics and World Affairs	

A BRIEF HISTORY OF INDIANA

I. EUROPEAN COLONY, 1679-1783

First Inhabitants

Here and there along Indiana watercourses are found articles of Indian fabrication which reveal that the first inhabitants of the state were dwelling here centuries before the white man appeared. The earliest Indians lived mainly on shellfish, as shown by the shell mounds they left. They used spears for hunting, made beads but not pottery, and lived in caves or flimsy shelters for short periods before moving on in search of more food. Other and later mounds reveal that a more settled people inhabited Indiana over a thousand years ago. They raised much of their food, smoked tobacco, made cloth, nets, sandals, pottery, and ornaments, and buried their dead with care. In southwestern Indiana about four hundred years ago dwelt some agricultural Indians who lived in houses formed of upright posts and cane lath covered with straw and mud, and grass roofs. They even fortified their villages. They made pottery utensils, flint knives, stone hammers, copper ornaments, and bows and arrows.

In the middle seventeenth century the northern part of the state was invaded by a new group of warlike, hunting Indians. They caused the farming Indians on the Ohio River to go back to their homeland in the Southeast. The newcomers, with an inferior culture, found that the streams, lakes, and swamps of northern Indiana supplied game and fish in abundance, the river systems provided highways for their canoes, and the patches of prairie could be gardened by the squaws. These were the red men found by the first white explorers in the late seventeenth century. They belonged to the Algonquian language family and came to be known as the Miami and Potawatomi tribes.

The French Arrive

The Spanish were the pioneers in the exploration and colonization of the New World, but shortly after its discovery by Columbus in 1492 came the first meager efforts of the English and the French. John Cabot, sailing in the service of England, discovered the Labrador region in 1497 and established England's claim to North America.

An early French expedition, under Verrazano, sailed along the Atlantic Coast in 1524 searching for a passage to the Orient. A decade later Cartier made the first of three voyages up the St. Lawrence River and attempted a colony, but without success.



The fur trade with the Indians lured the French into the interior and became the economic foundation of New France. Champlain founded Quebec in 1608 and explored westward to Lake Huron. Trader Jolliet and Father Marquette reached the Mississippi and descended it part way in 1673. Fur traders and missionaries fanned out through the country surrounding the Great Lakes. The Jesuit missionaries in particular labored amid sacrifice and martyrdom to convert the Indians to Christianity, while traders exchanged the white man's goods with the Indians for fur pelts. Explorer La Salle, the first known white man to enter Indiana, crossed the northwest corner of the state in 1679. By 1720 the French had control of the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes region, and the Mississippi from Illinois to the Gulf of Mexico. Indiana lay astride the watershed, part in the Province of Canada and part in Louisiana.

French Settlement

The French established three posts in Indiana to guard the Maumee-Wabash route connecting Lake Erie with the Ohio River. They were principally posts where traders could live, keep their supplies, barter with the Indians, and pack their furs for shipment either to Montreal or New Orleans. Since the French government obtained revenue from the fur trade, and wished to protect the waterways of communication, it usually kept troops at these posts. A fort

was established at the portage from the Maumee to the Little Wabash, where Fort Wayne now stands, before 1720. It came to be known as the Fort of the Miamis, or Fort Miamis. Another settlement was made among the Wea, or Ouiatenon, about 1717, and a stockade with blockhouses was built a few miles below the present city of Lafayette. It was called Fort Ouiatenon. Fort Vincennes, established by the Sieur de Vincennes probably in 1732, was the largest and most thriving post and has grown into the city we know today. Because trade was more easily established with the Illinois settlements and New Orleans, Vincennes was administered as part of the Province of Louisiana; the other two forts were part of Canada.



In exchange for hides and furs, the Indians received gunpowder, muskets, lead bullets, traps, kettles, blankets, knives, shirts, paint, beads, mirrors, jew's harps, and other trinkets. French brandy became an increasing part of this trade, to the detriment of the Indian's physical and social life. The traders raised some corn, wheat, tobacco, a few fruits and vegetables, but did not clear and farm the land. The Indians generally did not object to a few Frenchmen here and there, since such small settlements did not deplete or scare off the game which the Indians hunted. Indeed, the traders brought goods which raised the savage standard of living, and the French government

gave frequent presents to keep their friendship. Sometimes the traders went out among the tribes and did their trading on the hunting grounds. In the spring they transported their furs to Montreal or New Orleans and procured more trade goods. They frequently married Indian maidens and reared half-breed children. Long evenings were enlivened by dancing, card playing and sports. The game of lacrosse was learned from the Indians. The military commandant was also the civil ruler. The French were Catholic, and the priest was a central figure in their daily life.

Colonial Wars

France and England came to be the principal rivals in colonizing North America because the French settlements prevented the westward expansion of the English colonies from the Atlantic Coast. Both countries wanted the furs and other raw materials which America produced, and each struggled to draw the Indians against the other. The religion of the two powers also differed. The first colonial war for empire between the mother countries began in 1689; the fourth and last started in 1754. It was called the French and Indian War, and it ended early in 1763 with a conclusive English victory. France lost Canada and the remainder of her territory east of the Mississippi to England, and gave her land west of the Mississippi to Spain for the latter's unavailing help in the war. The outcome determined that Indiana was to be settled not by Frenchmen, but by Englishmen, or at least their American cousins. In turn this change meant that English law and government, as well as Protestantism, would prevail. Many of the French inhabitants, never anchored to the land, moved to the west side of the Mississippi. In 1765 the first British official to visit the Indiana posts found Vincennes to be a village of eighty or ninety French families, Ouiatenon to have only about fourteen families, and Fort Miamis even fewer.

Pontiac's War

British occupation of Indiana was neither long nor effective. Garrison troupes were sent to occupy Forts Miamis and Ouiatenon late in 1760. Vincennes did not have a British commandant for seventeen years. The Indians of Indiana had been allied with the French in the late war and they disliked the English, especially for their stinginess in giving presents, their hunger for land, their high prices, and their superior attitude. Under the leadership of Chief Pontiac,

the tribes around Detroit laid siege to that fort in May, 1763, in the hope of expelling the English from the Northwest and restoring the French. Pontiac dispatched to Fort Miamis a savage party which killed the commandant by ruse and captured the post. The party proceeded down the river to Ouiatenon and seized that fort. Although the Indians obtained possession of nine western posts, their objective was impossible and they had to give up the warfare by winter. The English re-established their authority the next year, but did not station troops in Indiana again until the Revolution.

An English Wilderness

The absorption of Canada and the Indian situation showed the British government that new policies were needed to deal with the French and Indians of British America. To pacify the savages, white settlement west of the Appalachian mountains was forbidden by the Royal Proclamation of 1763. The decree offended land speculators as well as squatters on the land and could not be enforced. Moreover, about half of the original English colonies held charters granting them boundaries from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Virginia claimed a large part of Indiana. The line of white settlement was moved to the Ohio River as far down as the mouth of the Tennessee in 1768, but Indiana was still closed to English settlement.

In 1774 the British parliament passed the Quebec Act, annexing the area north of the Ohio to the province of Quebec in order to establish firm control over settlement and fur trade. French laws and religion were safeguarded. The resulting dominance of French law and Catholicism was generally resented by the Protestant English colonists, who had expected to extend their influence westward.

The limitation on westward expansion and the Quebec Act were two of the many causes of the American Revolution.

Clark and Western Warfare

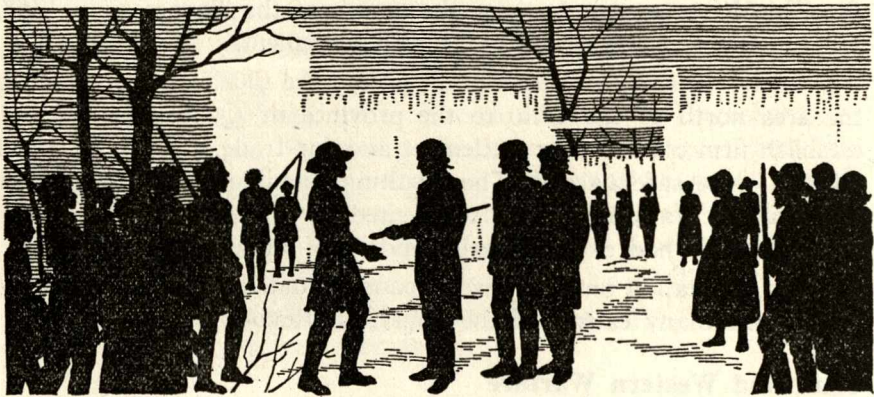
When the Revolution began there were no English settlements in Indiana. The meager French population was generally neutral until France allied herself with the United States in 1778.

Early in the war bands of British and Indians frequently raided the Kentucky outposts and the frontier settlements. The Americans were left largely to their own resources for defense. Some fled eastward, others stayed. During this turbulent time George Rogers Clark, then in his early twenties, achieved political and military prominence

in the West by leading resistance to the Indians and stiffening the morale of the settlers. He had helped organize Kentucky as a county of Virginia. From Governor Patrick Henry, Clark secured the promise of both men and materials in order to take the offensive in the West, but was disappointed in the amount of help received.

In 1778 Clark's expedition descended the Ohio to the mouth of the Tennessee River, then crossed the Illinois prairies. The troops captured Kaskaskia in July without the loss of a single life. Clark's generous, though firm, treatment of the French and the news of the recently concluded French alliance with the United States strengthened his position. Urged by Father Gibault and Dr. Jean Laffont, the French at Vincennes took the oath of loyalty to the Americans without firing a shot. Clark sent an officer and a few soldiers to supervise them.

When the British commandant at Detroit, Colonel Henry Hamilton, learned of Clark's success, he collected British and Indian forces to oppose him. Advancing up the Maumee and down the Wabash, he easily regained possession of Vincennes. Winter had already set in, but Clark determined to march against Vincennes. With about 170 men he set out in February, 1779, from Kaskaskia. Cold, snow, mud, high water, exposure, sickness, and lack of food failed to stop these



sons of the wilderness. They surprised the British troops, recaptured Vincennes, and sent Hamilton off to Virginia as a prisoner of war.

In 1781 Clark planned an expedition against Detroit. A reinforcement under Col. Archibald Lochry, on its way down the Ohio to join Clark, was ambushed below the site of Aurora by a band of British-allied Indians. Lochry and a third of his men were killed, the rest captured. One other skirmish of the Revolution was fought on Indiana soil. A French officer, Col. Augustin de la Balme, anxious

to strike the British, enlisted some French inhabitants of Illinois and Vincennes in 1780 and started up the Wabash toward Detroit. The Miami village of Kekionga near old Fort Miamis and the British traders' stores were pillaged. Chief Little Turtle rallied his braves, pursued La Balme, killed him, and dispersed his force.

Because Kaskaskia and Vincennes remained in American hands at the end of the war, the American peace commissioners were encouraged to ask in 1782 for the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes as boundaries of the United States.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Logan Esarey, *A History of Indiana* (1924), chapters 1-4; William Henry Smith, *The History of the State of Indiana* (1897), I, chapters 1-4; John B. Dillon, *A History of Indiana* (1859), chapters 3-15; J. P. Dunn, *Indiana, A Redemption from Slavery* (1888, 1905), chapters 1-4; and *The Mission to the Wabash* (1902); O. J. Craig, *Ouatatonon, A Study in Indiana History* (1893); Julia H. Levering, *Historic Indiana* (1909), chapters 1-5; George S. Cottman, *Indiana, Its History, Constitution and Present Government* (1936), chapters 1-4; W. M. Cockrum, *A Pioneer History of Indiana* (1907), chapters 1-3; Charles Roll, *Indiana, One Hundred and Fifty Years of American Development* (1931), I, parts 1-2; D. L. Chambers, *A Hoosier History* (1933), pp. 5-13; *Readings in Indiana History* (1914), chapters 2-3; Eli Lilly, *Prehistoric Antiquities of Indiana* (1937); William H. English, *The Conquest of the Northwest* (1897); James A. James, *The Life of George Rogers Clark* (1928); Francis Parkman, *The Jesuits in North America* (1883); H. H. Peckham, *Pontiac and the Indian Uprising* (1947); John D. Barnhart, *Henry Hamilton and George Rogers Clark in the American Revolution* (1951).

II. TERRITORIAL DAYS, 1783-1816

British Influence

Between 1783 and 1816 it was uncertain whether the United States would be able to make good its title to all land east of the Mississippi River, between Canada and Florida. Virtually no Americans, except solitary fur traders, ventured north of the Ohio for the first few years. Until 1796 British troops were garrisoned at Niagara, Detroit, and Mackinac on the American side of the Great Lakes. British influence was a potent factor in stiffening the resistance of the Indians to the advancing American settlements until the end of the War of 1812. English policy was determined mainly by a desire to protect their lucrative fur trade, the economic base of this region since the arrival of the French.

Peace between the British and Americans in 1783 caught the Indians by surprise and amazed tribal leaders. What right had the British to give lands of the Indians to the Americans? The red men had not agreed to the cession of the land nor to the end of warfare and were angrily insisting upon the Ohio River as the approximate boundary between themselves and the American frontiersmen. They feared occupation by American farmers who would drive out the game more than had the transient British or French fur traders.

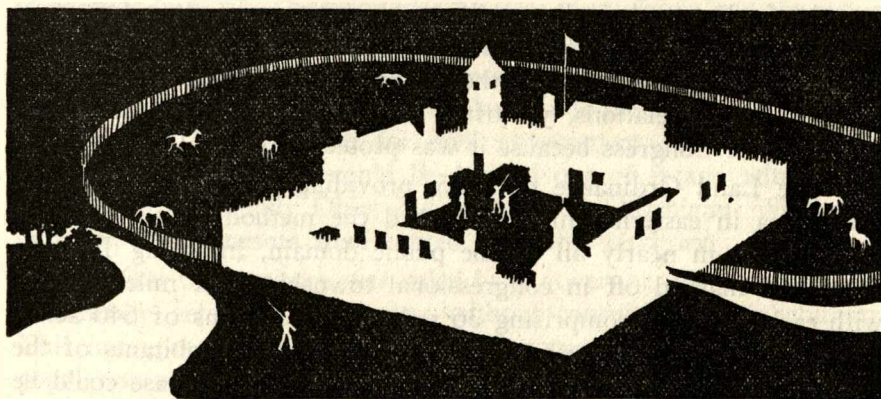
Indian Relations, 1783-1795

Between the Ohio River and the Lakes lived numerous Indian tribes, notably the Miami, Potawatomi, Delaware, Shawnee, Wea, Kickapoo, Piankashaw, and Wyandot or Huron. It is estimated that there were about 5,000 warriors, or 20,000 red men, in Indiana after the Revolution. This Indian population was most numerous in the northern third of the state, in the upper Wabash, St. Joseph, and Maumee valleys.

Late in the 1780's Chief Little Turtle and his powerful Miami tribe succeeded in drawing the tribes together to resist the white advance. American settlements along the Ohio River were raided. In 1790, General Josiah Harmer was sent against the Indians only to have his detachment defeated on the banks of the Maumee within the present city of Fort Wayne. Next year Arthur St. Clair, Revolutionary general and governor of the Northwest Territory, was routed in camp, near the present Ohio-Indiana boundary east of Portland.

Little Turtle was active in both Indian victories. General Charles Scott, of Kentucky, was more successful in his attack on the Wea and Kickapoo villages surrounding old Fort Ouiatenon. He burned the towns and destroyed the fort in June, 1791. Immediately following this stroke, General James Wilkinson led an expedition against the Miami village on the Eel River, near the modern city of Logansport. He destroyed the town, and the Indians were killed or scattered.

Angered at St. Clair's failure, President Washington appointed Anthony Wayne to fight not only the Indians, but, if necessary, their British allies. While Wayne collected and drilled his troops, the Indians were urged to make peace, and Little Turtle argued in vain against further resistance. Wayne advanced northward and in the summer of 1794 broke the Indian power at the Battle of Fallen Timbers on the Maumee. The British dared not give military aid to their red allies and prepared to surrender the posts they held illegally. Wayne



built a fort (Fort Wayne) at the site of the old French post on the headwaters of the Maumee, and in 1795 he made peace with the Indians at Greenville, Ohio.

The Treaty of Greenville cleared the greater part of Ohio and a slice of southeastern Indiana of the Indian title. For about fifteen years relations between the Indians and whites were generally peaceful. This ebbing of Indian warfare encouraged a larger flow of population into the Ohio Valley, some of the immigrants penetrating southern Indiana.

Land Problem and Policy

Virginia's claim to the Northwest was strengthened by her financial support of Clark's expedition against Kaskaskia and Vincennes

in 1778-1779, and she promised Clark and his troops 150,000 acres of land northwest of the Ohio as a bonus. Land around modern Clarksville was taken up, starting in 1784, and became not only the first authorized American settlement in Indiana, but the first in the Northwest Territory. It was protected by the erection of Fort Finney in 1786 at the site of Jeffersonville.

During the 1780's Virginia and the other states wisely surrendered their claims to western lands to Congress. This body evolved a process of four steps by which the land of the Indians was to become the land of the American settlers. Sale of land by the Indians to the Federal Government was the first requirement—a recognition of tribal title to the land and a prohibition of private purchases in which Indians might be cheated. Next came survey of the land by the government, with sale of tracts at land offices as the third step. Settlement by the purchasers, or by those who rented or bought from the purchasers, was the final step. Actually, a different practice was often followed: "squatters" simply moved in and settled in the wilderness, without buying or obtaining title to the property. Such illegal occupation strained Indian relations, yet often had to be recognized by special enactment of Congress because it was protected by local custom.

The Land Ordinance of 1785, providing for the survey of a small area in eastern Ohio, established the method of survey used subsequently in nearly all of the public domain, including Indiana. Land was marked off in congressional townships, six miles square, with each township comprising 36 mile-square sections of 640 acres. Each sixteenth section was reserved to the future inhabitants of the township for the support of common schools. No purchase could be made of less than 640 acres, nor for less than \$1 per acre in cash. Congress was in debt and short of means of obtaining revenue, hence was seeking to make the public domain a source of revenue to pay off the federal debt. But these minimum terms involved more money than most prospective settlers could pay, and more land than they could use.

Congress was able to sell some large tracts to companies organized by speculators. In 1787 the Ohio Land Company bought a large area in southeastern Ohio, paying principally with claims against Congress, and founded Marietta the next year. A few other companies and wealthy individuals bought large tracts and sold smaller units to settlers. In 1796 the minimum price was increased to \$2 per acre. Four years later William Henry Harrison helped secure a revision which made some concessions to western settlers. Although the price

remained the same, the minimum acreage was reduced to 320, and payments could be made over a four-year period. An 1804 law reduced the minimum unit to 160 acres, and that same year the first Indiana land office was opened at Vincennes. As the population of the United States moved westward, the land policy of the government grew more lenient and flexible. In 1820 the price was reduced to \$1.25 an acre in cash and the settler could buy as little as 80 acres. Under this last act most of the land in Indiana was purchased.

Government of the Northwest Territory

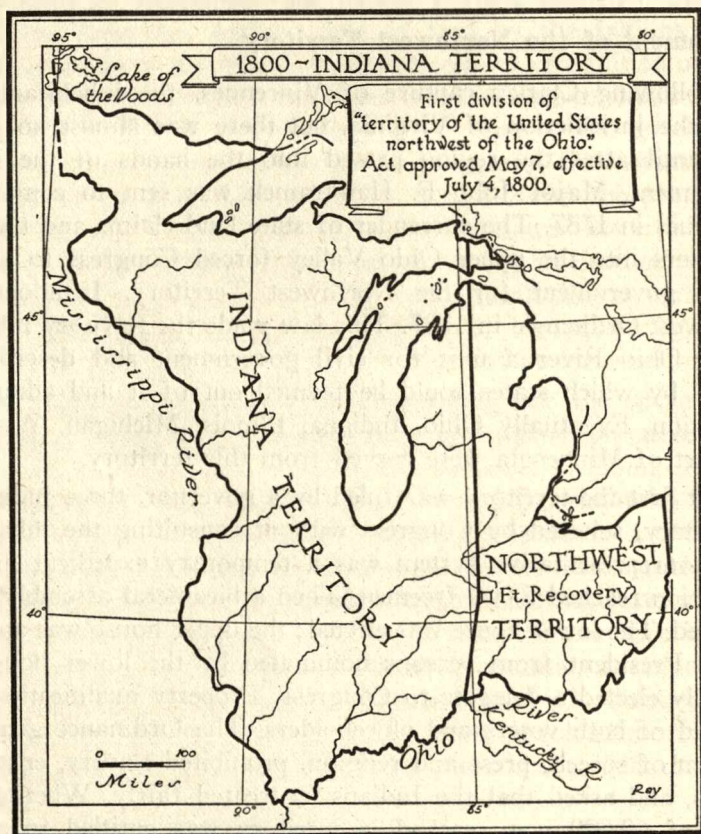
Following Clark's capture of Vincennes, the inhabitants came under the jurisdiction of Virginia, but there was almost no government until after the region passed into the hands of the Federal Government. Major John F. Hamtramck was sent to command at Vincennes in 1787. The surrender of state land claims and the influx of settlers into the upper Ohio Valley forced Congress to organize a civil government for the Northwest Territory. It adopted the Northwest Ordinance in 1787. This law made the territory northwest of the Ohio River a unit for civil government and described the process by which states could be formed out of it and admitted to the Union. Eventually Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota were carved from this territory.

At first the territory was ruled by a governor, three judges, and a secretary, selected by Congress without consulting the inhabitants. This nonrepresentative system was a temporary expedient until the population reached 5,000 freemen. Then a bicameral assembly was to be added. The lower house was elected; the upper house was appointed by the President from persons nominated by the lower house. The assembly elected a delegate to Congress. Property qualifications were required of both voters and officeholders. The Ordinance guaranteed freedom of speech, press and religion, prohibited slavery, encouraged schools, and asked that the Indians be treated fairly. When a population of 60,000 was reached, a territory was entitled to adopt a constitution and apply to join the Union as a state. The Ordinance set the pattern for the future expansion of the entire United States.

In July, 1790, the three judges and Acting Governor Winthrop Sargent of the Northwest Territory arrived at Vincennes to hold court and set up a local government. Knox County was created, embracing most of the present State of Indiana, and local officials were appointed.

Indiana Territory, 1800-1816

In 1798 Governor Arthur St. Clair proclaimed the Northwest Territory to be of the second or representative level. Two years later the Ohio region was nearly ready for statehood, and the remainder of the Northwest Territory was separated as Indiana Territory and reverted to the first stage of government. Vincennes was made the capital. The whole of Indiana Territory contained only 5,650 people, a majority of whom were French.



William Henry Harrison, first governor of the territory, did not arrive in Vincennes until early in 1801. He had been secretary of the Northwest Territory and then its first delegate to Congress. Harrison was governor of Indiana Territory until late in 1812 when he resigned to carry on military duties in the War of 1812. Subsequently his political career led to the Presidency, but he died after only one month in office.

The governor was the most powerful official in the territory, making nearly all appointments to local offices and to the militia. He also superintended Indian affairs. During the first stage of territorial government (1800-1804) he and the three judges constituted the legislature and adopted laws to govern Indiana Territory. Together the judges served as the highest court of appeal within the territory.

The French seem to have preferred this nonrepresentative level of government, and the vastness of the area and sparseness of population made it desirable. An 1804 referendum, however, revealed a majority of the voting freeholders in favor of advancing to the representative stage, and late in the year the governor proclaimed its adoption. Elections were held, and in July, 1805, the first General Assembly of Indiana Territory met at Vincennes.

When the Ordinance of 1787 was framed, voting and office-holding were extended only to those who met certain property qualifications. The leaven of democracy worked rapidly in the western wilderness, and during Indiana Territory's second stage of government Congress evolved the equivalent of universal suffrage for white males and made the territorial delegate and members of the upper house subject to popular election. An 1802 convention at Vincennes petitioned Congress to allow slavery in the territory, but the petition was not granted. Next year the governor and judges adopted a Virginia law which permitted the substance of slavery by legalizing life contracts between Negroes and whites. The law was repealed in 1810, at which time the census reported about 250 slaves in the territory. Slavery never became an established institution in Indiana, although it had existed among the French before the coming of the Americans.

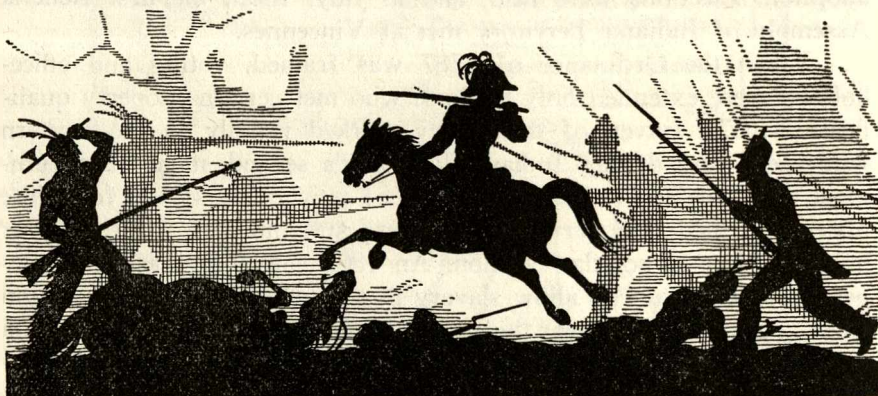
Tippecanoe and the War of 1812

Governor Harrison conducted a series of treaties between 1801 and 1809 by which the Indians ceded their claims to approximately the southern third of the present states of Indiana and Illinois. These cessions brought encroachments by white settlers which threatened the Indians' continued existence in Indiana, and they organized to defend their remaining land. There were no further cessions until after the War of 1812. Resistance was encouraged by the British in Canada and by a new generation of warriors.

The Prophet and Tecumseh, Shawnee brothers, were leaders in organizing opposition to the whites. The Prophet preached rejection of white influences and a return to the old way of life. Tecumseh seems to have aimed at a close military organization of the Indians

north and south of the Ohio. He was a man of ability who won the respect of many of his white enemies, while the Prophet was a conspirator of doubtful virtue. In 1810 and again in 1811, Tecumseh met with Harrison at Vincennes and denounced the cessions of land, especially the last one, made at Fort Wayne in 1809.

While Tecumseh was among the Indians south of the Ohio in the fall of 1811, Harrison marched up the Wabash toward the Prophet's town with a force of nearly 1,000 men. Near present-day Terre Haute, Fort Harrison was erected. The army proceeded northward and encountered the Indians along the Tippecanoe River a few miles above the present city of Lafayette. The Indians asked a council



for the following day, but early in the November dawn they attacked. Harrison's troops suffered heavy casualties, with the loss of about 60 men killed and 125 wounded. The Indian losses were also heavy. Neither side won a decisive victory, but the Indians withdrew. The conflict merged into the War of 1812.

The area now forming the state of Indiana suffered more in this war than in any previous conflict. The American advance into Canada quickly backfired, and the British and Indians captured Detroit. The garrison at Fort Dearborn (Chicago) was massacred. Indian raiders penetrated as far south as Kentucky. American garrisons at Fort Harrison and Fort Wayne were besieged but not captured by the Indians. In the fall of 1812 a band of Indians swept down on the settlement at Pigeon Roost in Scott County and massacred twenty inhabitants, mostly women and children. On December 17, 1812, Colonel Campbell attacked the Miami villages on the Mississinewa River (north of modern Marion) and destroyed them, because most

of the Miami had sided with the British. Individual settlers were killed and horses stolen for years afterward.

The treaty ending the war had important consequences for the Old Northwest, although there was no change in the boundary between Canada and the United States. Tecumseh had died fighting with the British. The Indians were defeated and ready for peace again; and there were no more Indian wars in Indiana. British influence in the Northwest ceased to be a menace. American occupation of the whole region was hastened. Indiana and Illinois were ripe for statehood.

Early Settlers and Settlements

Nearly all the immigrants to territorial Indiana were native-born Americans. About half came from the South (North Carolina, Maryland, Virginia, Tennessee, and Kentucky) and almost as many from Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York. Very few came from New England and Europe. Practically everyone settled in southern Indiana close to the Ohio River, with tongues of settlement running northward up the Whitewater and Wabash valleys. Many early settlers were squatters. The population was preponderantly rural, yet such towns as Clarksville, New Albany, Jeffersonville, Madison, Vevay, Charlestown, Brookville, Lawrenceburg, Corydon, Brownstown, Salem, Harmony, Princeton, and Richmond had been established by the end of 1816. Fort Wayne was a military post in the northeast, and Vincennes was the capital until 1813, when after much agitation the capital was moved to Corydon, nearer the center of population.

A Swiss colony settled at Vevay, where vineyards were planted. Simple German peasants who had a common religious faith and led a communal life came from Pennsylvania to the Wabash in 1815 and settled Harmony. Under the leadership of George Rapp they labored hard and prospered for a decade.

By 1810, despite the detachment of Michigan and Illinois as separate territories, the population of Indiana Territory had jumped to 25,000. Five years later, despite the war, it stood close to 64,000, more than enough for statehood. At the end of the territorial period there were fifteen counties in Indiana; eight on the Ohio (Dearborn, Switzerland, Jefferson, Clark, Harrison, Perry, Warrick, Posey); two up the Whitewater (Franklin and Wayne); two more up the Wabash (Gibson and Knox); and three on the East Fork of White River (Orange, Washington, and Jackson). Rivers were important highways



of transportation and travel, and most exports floated down the Ohio and Lower Mississippi to New Orleans on flatboats.

The early Hoosiers were sturdy pioneers. In southern Indiana they cleared the forests, fought the Indians and diseases, founded schools, churches, and towns, and otherwise established a civilization while central and especially northern Indiana were yet almost entirely under the sway of the aborigines. They wrested a living from the soil and plied their trades. Several of the larger fortunes of pioneer Indiana were derived from trade with the Indians. Unfortunately, the liquor traffic and land speculation frequently merged with this trade, and the corruption and cheating of the Indians which followed left a stain on this chapter of our early history.

Indiana Enters the Union, 1816

Prior to 1816 only five states had been admitted to the Union (Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, and Louisiana). Indiana became the nineteenth state in the country, and was followed during the next five years by Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri. In 1811 the Indiana Assembly had petitioned Congress for statehood, but the response was not favorable. Jonathan Jennings, territorial delegate since 1809, was the leader in the statehood movement and Harrison's successor as the central political figure in the territory. A second memorial for statehood resulted in congressional adoption of an enabling act in April, 1816, which called for a constitutional convention at Corydon in June.

The enabling act included five proposed "donations" of land to the new state. Section 16 of each township was reserved for the

encouragement of schools, a whole township was offered for support of a state university, four sections of land were granted as a site for a state capitol, salines (salt springs) were offered for the state to use, and three per cent of the proceeds from the sale of public lands within the state were to be returned for internal improvements. There was a further promise that the Federal Government would set aside two per cent of the proceeds from public land sales to build roads to and through Indiana.

The revenue from the sections 16 was and is still used to support common schools. Indiana University was located on the township secured for an institution of higher education. The salt springs were never productive and later were sold. The Three Per Cent Fund was used to open and clear a network of roads over the state. The Two Per Cent Fund enabled Congress to build the National Road across Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. All these "donations" had the indirect effect of attracting settlers and encouraging the state government to push public works and education.

The Corydon convention framed an excellent constitution that drew heavily upon the practice and experience of neighboring states and the federal Constitution. It was unusually democratic for its day and in some respects better than the present constitution, which succeeded it in 1851. Slavery was prohibited, and the article calling upon the state to establish a system of schools was much in advance of the times, as well as beyond the immediate financial ability of the state to make effective. Believing in the right of the people to alter their fundamental law, the framers required a referendum on calling a new convention every twelfth year. The usual executive, legislative, and judicial departments were established.



In August, 1816, the first state election was held. Jonathan Jennings was chosen governor and William Hendricks the sole congressman. Soon the first state Assembly convened at Corydon and elected James Noble and Waller Taylor as members of the United States Senate. On December 11, Congress formally admitted Indiana into the Union.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Logan Esarey, *A History of Indiana* (1924), chapters 5-9; J. P. Dunn, *True Indian Stories* (1908), and *Indiana, A Redemption from Slavery* (1905), chapters 5-12; William Henry Smith, *The History of the State of Indiana* (1897), I, chapters 5-9; John B. Dillon, *A History of Indiana* (1859), chapters 16-42; Julia H. Levering, *Historic Indiana* (1919), chapters 6-7; George S. Cottman, *Indiana, Its History, Constitution and Present Government* (1936), chapters 5-6; W. M. Cockrum, *A Pioneer History of Indiana* (1907), chapters 4-10; Harlow Lindley, *Indiana as Seen by Early Travelers* (1916); Otho Winger, *The Lost Sister Among the Miamis* (1936); D. B. Goebel, *William Henry Harrison* (1926); G. B. Lockwood, *The New Harmony Movement* (1905); *Constitution Making in Indiana*, edited by Charles Kettleborough (1916), Vol. 1; *Messages and Letters of William Henry Harrison*, edited by Logan Esarey (1922), 2 vols.; *Tippecanoe Journal in John Tipton Papers* (1942), I, 62-83; *Territorial Days of Indiana 1800-1816* (1950).

Indiana Magazine of History, Vols. 40 and 41, "Mrs. Lydia B. Bacon's Journal, 1811-1812."

III. PIONEER STATE, 1816-1865

Population Growth

Indiana entered the Union with a population of at least 75,000. According to the federal census there were 147,178 Hoosiers in 1820, 685,866 in 1840, and 1,350,428 in 1860. Between 1820 and 1860 the number of people in Indiana multiplied almost ten times, and by the latter date only five states had more inhabitants than Indiana, whereas in 1820 Indiana had ranked eighteenth among the twenty-three states.

No other period has revealed such rapid growth in population, but the development in Indiana was merely a part of the larger flow of population into the Mississippi Valley which brought fifteen states into the Union between 1792 and 1860. An unusually high birth-rate and heavy immigration were the principal factors accounting for the increased numbers. Indiana was settled more largely by southern stock than any other state of the Old Northwest. In the forties and fifties there was a marked increase in immigration from Germany and the British Isles, especially Ireland, as well as from the Middle Atlantic states. These elements settled largely in the northern half of Indiana and established trade with the East; some located on the less productive land in the southern part of the state. By 1850 Indiana had nearly 55,000 foreign born, over half of whom were natives of Germany and the others principally from Ireland. The Irish contributed substantially to the labor force for building canals, railroads, and factories. They strengthened the Catholic Church and the Democratic party. Apparently they also increased the number of paupers and victims of intemperance. The Germans were much slower to merge with the "natives," clinging longer to their language, amusements, and traditions. More thrifty than the Irish, they developed land, trades, and some factories. Although not especially interested in politics, they usually were Democrats up until the 1850's when many of them swung over to the new Republican party. The history of the brewing industry in Indiana is almost exclusively a chapter in the history of the German population. Until their coming corn whisky had no serious rival. A very large element of the early population of central Indiana was native to southern Indiana, and likewise many of the early settlers of the northern part were born in central and southern Indiana. The current of settlement ran northward as well as westward.

The largest town in 1840 was New Albany, with a few more than 4,000 people. In 1850, Madison, New Albany, and Indianapolis

vied for first place with about 9,000 each. Ten years later the capital city of Indianapolis led with a total close to 19,000.

Removal of the Capital

With the determination of Indiana's boundaries upon admission to the Union, it was soon recognized that the capital town of Corydon was too far south for easy travel from the northern part of the state. Yet the central part of the state was still occupied by Indians. A treaty with them in 1818 secured title to this area (called the "New Purchase") and the Delaware agreed to move west within three years. Early in 1820 the state legislature accordingly named a commission to select a new site for the capital. The group journeyed toward the center of the state and finally selected a site at the juncture of Fall Creek with White River in the midst of a woods. The Federal Government had agreed to give the state four square miles of land so that lots could be sold and the revenue used to build a new capitol.

The recommendation of the commission was accepted by the legislature in January 1821, and the name of Indianapolis was given to the proposed village. Surveyors laid out the town while settlers were moving in. Lots were auctioned off in the fall of that year. The legislature organized a county around Indianapolis and authorized the building of a court house which would serve temporarily as a state capitol. To this court house Samuel Merrill, the state treasurer,



moved the records and money belonging to the state in the fall of 1824. The legislature convened in the new location in January 1825. The first state capitol was completed in 1835.

After the migration from along White River of the Delaware in 1821, the northward push of settlers forced the removal of the

Potawatomi and Miami in the next two decades. The Potawatomi agreed in 1834 under compulsion to go, then changed their minds and delayed departure. Governor Wallace ordered General John Tipton to clear them out in 1838 and start them on their westward trek. The business was badly handled, and the Indians endured much suffering



on the journey that came to be called "the trail of death." The Miami were dispossessed in 1846 and taken to Cincinnati, where they were put aboard Ohio River steamers for the West.

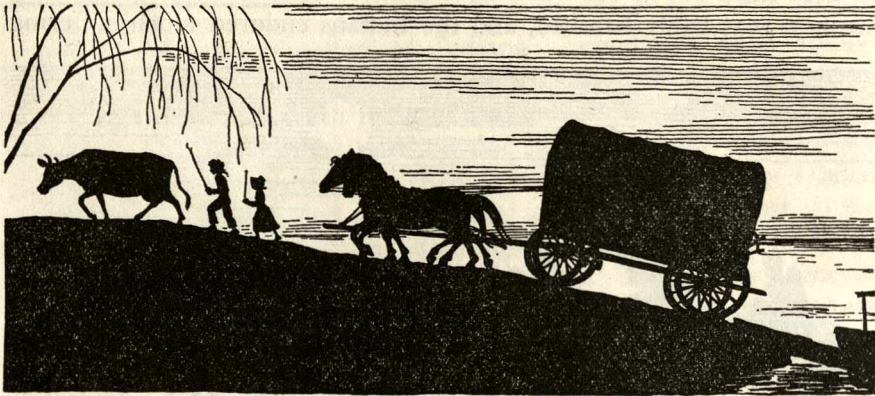
The fifteen counties existing in 1816 became the final ninety-two by 1860, with nearly all counties organized as early as 1840. The prairie lands in northern Indiana were slow to be occupied because of their wetness, the lack of tools to cultivate such soil, and the preference of settlers for timber regions.

Making a Living

The first task of most settlers was the selection of a site for a home. This choice was determined largely by access to markets, availability of drinking water, drainage, nearness to other settlers, preference for wooded lands with the advantage of occupying a clearing if possible. Desire to reach markets prompted most settlers to locate along or near rivers, until land transportation was improved. Neighbors were generally welcomed, but not too many. A site already cleared by fire, Indians, hunters, or earlier settlers gave one a head start in cultivating a crop.

Pioneer homes were usually log cabins, although newcomers often built half-faced camps (one side open) for temporary shelter. Building a log cabin was a co-operative enterprise involving the labor of neighbors to lift the logs in place. Similarly, fields were cleared by "log-

rolling" parties in which teams contested in rolling felled trees into heaps for burning. Frontier individualism was rarely absolute; community co-operation was required for survival. In this environment



Abraham Lincoln spent his formative years, from age seven to twenty-one, in Spencer County. As the early pioneers prospered, they could afford better houses of brick, stone, or lapped siding. Handsomely proportioned furniture replaced crude benches and tables and beds. This second period of house building coincided with a revival of interest in the classical architecture of ancient times. There are several fine examples in southern and central Indiana of the so-called "Greek revival" style of architecture.

Labor and thrift were exalted partly as a matter of making a virtue of an economic necessity. Hard work was the common lot of men, women, and children, with the role of women the most severe of all. Yet the rewards of hard work were almost certain. Clearing the dense forest and planting and cultivating crops were long and tiring tasks done with only a few simple tools. Men worked hardest while planting and harvesting, but had seasons when they could hunt or take trips. Teen-age boys and girls did about everything that was done by their parents. They made play out of work at corn huskings and at maple sugar time. Mother's work was never done, and "raising" a large family made an endless task of cleaning, mending, sewing, cooking, and caring for the sick or injured. In addition, the mother had a large share in tending the garden, caring for the chickens, and instructing the children. Each year she faced the job of making jams, jellies, preserves, mincemeat, and of drying fruits and vegetables.

Agriculture was the economy of pioneer Indiana, and corn was the basic crop. It could be planted in cleared patches in which stumps

were left. It was food for man and beast. Pioneers ate corn on the cob, made hominy, mixed it with beans for succotash, parched it, made cornbread, hoe cake, and mush. Some drank their corn as



whisky, but it was more common to turn corn into pork by feeding it to hogs. Swine had no rival among livestock, though there were oxen, plug horses, scrub cattle, sheep, and poultry on most farms. Corn fed to hogs produced meat for the table and provided a crop that could be driven to market and sold down the river.

Pioneer farming methods were wasteful and destructive of soil fertility. Lack of crop rotation, seed selection, adequate cultivation, proper tools, and fertilizers characterized early agriculture, but yields were high because of the richness of the soil. By the forties and fifties the good influence of county agricultural societies, farm papers, and individuals interested in better seeds, stock, methods, and tools slowly began to be felt. County and state fairs, with exhibits, premiums, and contests contributed to this improvement.

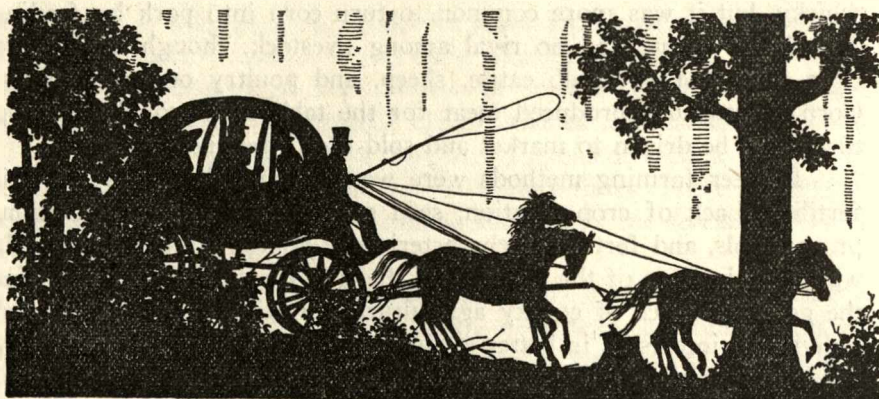
Common trades and manufactures were gristmills, sawmills, paper mills, shipyards, packing plants, tanneries, blacksmith shops, brick-yards, cabinet works, distilleries, breweries, and wagon making. Whereas the first settlers made nearly everything they used, by the 1850's "store" clothing, food, and tools were in greater use, although the trades and industries producing them were almost always local.

Travel and Transportation

In territorial days there was not an improved highway within Indiana. The early settlers followed the trails made by the Indians or animals through the wilderness. Travel on the rivers in flatboats was much easier, although affected by floods, rapids, sand bars, and fallen

trees. Flatboats often continued down to the Lower Mississippi with cargoes of pork, whisky, corn, lard, etc. In 1811 the first steamboat appeared on the Ohio. By the early 1820's steamboats began pointing their noses up the Whitewater, Wabash, and White rivers. In 1831 one reached Indianapolis, but got stuck on the return voyage. By 1840 steamboats were plying up and down the Ohio with cargoes and passengers, but until at least the fifties the flatboat remained the chief vehicles of river transportation.

An early road was the Buffalo Trace, a widened buffalo trail running from New Albany to Vincennes. In the late 1820's and early 1830's, two broad highways were laid across the state. The National Road, which Congress had projected from Wheeling to St. Louis, crossed Indiana from Richmond, through Indianapolis to Terre Haute. The state developed the Michigan Road, running from Madison northward through Shelbyville, Indianapolis, Logansport, South Bend to



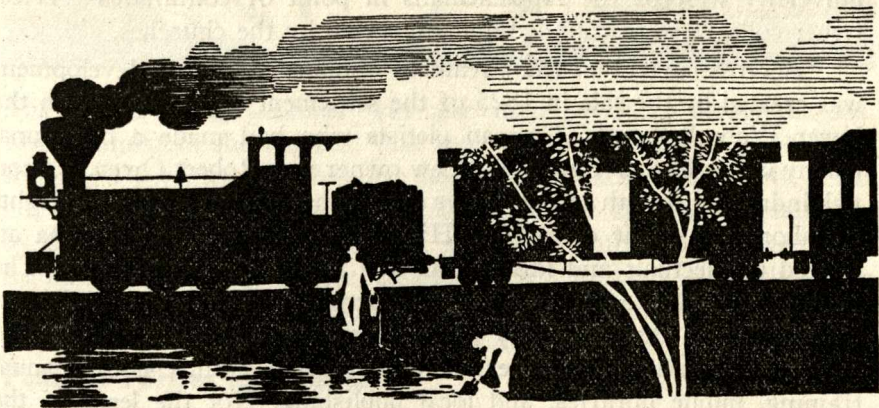
Michigan City. Stagecoaches carried passengers, mail, and small freight in jolting fashion, through mud or dust, over these crude highways. Logs were sometimes laid in low muddy places, making "corduroy roads." Later on planks were tried, but gravel was subsequently found more satisfactory.

The 1830's introduced the "canal age" to Indiana. Aided by a large federal land grant, a canal was started to connect the Maumee River with the Wabash. It was eventually extended via Terre Haute to Evansville. About twenty years were required to build it. The state alone provided for the Whitewater Canal, running north from Lawrenceburg to Brookville and on up to Cambridge City alongside the Whitewater River. A third canal, never finished, was projected



from Peru through Marion, Anderson, and Indianapolis, following the White River to a junction with the canal to Evansville. Because the canals required heavy investments and constant care in the face of floods, Indiana went heavily in debt. The competition of the railroads hastened the downfall of the canal system. The state defaulted on its interest payments, and the Wabash and Erie Canal bondholders were given stock in exchange for the bonds, half of it guaranteed by the state and half dependent upon canal tolls. The canal was then turned over to the stockholders to operate, maintain, and lengthen. The Whitewater Canal was also sold to a private company.

Indiana's first railroad was a short line at Shelbyville in 1834, the car pulled by a horse. A steam railroad was started northward from Madison in 1838. The rails reached Columbus in 1844 and Indianapolis in 1847, when a great celebration was held. By 1850



there were about 220 miles of railroad in Indiana and in 1860 the total had jumped to 2,200 miles.

Improvements in transportation stimulated settlement in the northern half of the state, encouraged land booms there, and increased Indiana's connections with the East, although most of Indiana's exports still went down the Ohio. The eastern connection was important in strengthening Union sentiment before and during the Civil War. The first telegraph office in Indiana opened in Vincennes late in 1847.

Education and Religion

Although the constitution of 1816 called for establishment of "a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation, from township schools to a state university," "as soon as circumstances will permit," no "system" had been established before 1851, when a new constitution was adopted. Public schools were on a local-option basis and generally charged tuition. Churches and individuals maintained many good private schools, but they were generally not free. The Quakers probably had the best elementary schools, while many ministers, especially Presbyterians, taught schools.

Obstacles to the development of free public schools were the tax burden, a sparse population and transportation difficulties, a lingering feeling of class and sectarian differences, and a preference by some families for schools under church or private control. Finally, the state plunged itself into so much debt for canals that it could not support free schools. Colleges and universities were numerous enough, but barely survived financially and had meager enrollment. Vincennes University was incorporated by the General Assembly in 1806. Indiana University opened at Bloomington about 1825. It is the oldest state university west of the Appalachians in point of continuous service. Other colleges were founded and supported by the churches.

A cross-current in the stream of Indiana's cultural development was created by the sale in 1825 of the settlement of Harmony, on the lower Wabash, by the German pietists who had made a communal colony under Father Rapp. The new owner was Robert Owen, a Scottish industrialist with radical views on communitarian living, the rights of labor, and public education. His social experiment in Indiana attracted intellectuals and idealists as well as the erratic and lazy. The venture collapsed after two years of wrangling, and those who remained owned their property privately and turned their attention to advanced educational practices like kindergarten, adult classes, manual training, public libraries, and local publishing. Not the least of the beneficial effects on the state of New Harmony was the settlement in Indiana of Owen's four talented sons.

The constitution of 1851 was less favorable to "a general system of education," but a more favorable public opinion, combined with greater financial strength, led to the achievement of a free public school system during the latter half of the nineteenth century, especially after the state Supreme Court reversed an obstructing opinion in 1885.

Most of the early Hoosiers were Protestants, with the Methodists, Presbyterians, and Baptists among the earliest and most numerous. After 1840 the Christians (Disciples of Christ) increased to complete the "big four" of Protestantism. The Quakers, United Brethren, Episcopalians, Lutherans, and Unitarians were important Protestant minorities. The oldest church in Indiana is Catholic, established by the French in Vincennes. Newcomers brought additional Catholics, and their number was greatly increased with the advent of Irish and Germans.

Many early churches organized and first met in homes, schools, and barns or groves. The itinerant system of Methodism was well suited to frontier conditions and helps explain its rapid advance.



The circuit-riding preacher was also used by other denominations. Many ministers showed zeal that spurred them on amid great hardships and sacrifice to bring the Gospel to isolated settlements. That not everyone responded to the program of the churches is indicated by the stress on "revivals," which were commonly supercharged with emotional appeals to better conduct. The churches were the main antagonist of frontier drinking, brawling, and gambling.

Political Parties and Issues

When Indiana Territory was organized, the Federalist party of Washington and Hamilton was about to be overthrown by the Jeffer-

sonian Republicans. In Indiana Territory a rivalry developed between followers of Harrison and Jennings, but both factions were Jeffersonian Republicans. There was also an east-west rivalry between the Whitewater Valley and Lower Wabash settlers which was partly identified with this personal rivalry. Issues were not sharply defined, but a general demand existed for increased political democracy, support of the War of 1812, a stern Indian policy, land legislation more generous to settlers, and federal support of internal improvements.

With the national election of 1824, the Jeffersonian Republicans split into National Republicans led by J. Q. Adams and Henry Clay, and Democratic Republicans led by Andrew Jackson and others. The former encouraged federal support of internal improvements, the United States Bank, a protective tariff, a strong representative government, and liberal interpretation of the federal Constitution. The Jacksonians included men of divergent views and were less certain what they favored, but they represented a western surge toward broader democracy and elevation of the "common man" which was irresistible. Issues were often overshadowed by personalities. Indiana usually voted for Jackson or his candidates in national elections from 1824 to 1840, while keeping the National Republicans and their successors, the Whigs, in control of the state.

Under Whig leadership an unusually successful system of state banking was established and an equally unsuccessful system of internal improvements inaugurated. The depression of the late 1830's brought financial chaos and fiscal insolvency and contributed much to Whig defeat in 1843. The Democrats then dominated state politics until the Civil War. They lowered the state debt, preached economy, established common schools, urged states' rights and the rights of individuals, and provided institutions for the insane, the blind, and the deaf and dumb. Until about 1850 they generally ignored or evaded the emerging slavery issue, viewed temperance as a moral rather than political issue, and successfully sought the support of the Germans and Irish. After considerable agitation, a new constitution was drafted in 1850-51 under Democratic influence. It reflected Jacksonian concepts and made elections more frequent, more offices elective, substituted biennial for annual sessions of the Assembly, specified state-debt limitations, and brought Negro exclusion.

Though slavery had never been an institution in Indiana, neither had free Negroes been welcomed. Indiana had about 10,000 people of color when their coming was prohibited by the new constitution. The more militant antislavery movement was echoed by some Free Soil

newspapers in the state, and the churches increasingly condemned slavery on moral grounds. The agitation of antislavery third parties such as Liberty and Free Soil tickets was felt, and many Whigs objected to the Mexican War as a conspiracy to extend slavery.

Then came the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854, allowing settlers in either territory to determine whether they would have slaves. This was the spark that caused a political revolution. The Republican party was immediately born, opposed to slavery extension and demanding free homesteads for settlers. Indiana was sending many emigrants to the public domain who wanted not only free land, but land free of slavery. The new party encouraged temperance, and under its influence the state tried prohibition briefly. The Democrats were hard to dislodge, and not until 1860 did the Republicans carry Indiana and elect both a governor and a majority of both houses of the Assembly.

Threats of secession alarmed Hoosiers, and although a vast majority preferred some compromise short of war, they were equally firm in believing that preservation of the Union was an economic and political necessity. Indecision was ended when the Confederates fired on the expedition sent to resupply Fort Sumter in April, 1861. For the moment there was a unity of purpose and feeling greatly in excess of anything the state had ever known.

The Civil War and Its Aftermath

The call to arms by President Lincoln produced more Hoosier volunteers than requested or needed, and a special session of the Gen-



eral Assembly provided for recruiting and weapons. Governor Morton, determined to support the Union vigorously, moved in advance of public opinion and the tide of events. Initial unity and enthusiasm

waned as the prolonged conflict brought accounts of suffering and heavy casualties, and recruiting became difficult. Bounties were offered, then drafting enforced. Altogether Indiana supplied nearly 200,000 men to the army and navy from a population of 1,350,500, or almost 15 per cent of its population. Over 24,400 Hoosiers lost their lives, or 12 per cent of the men engaged.

Indiana was not the scene of any decisive battles, but there were occasional raids on this side of the Ohio. The most alarming was made by General John Morgan in the summer of 1863. (See picture on page 33.) Jeffersonville served as an important military depot for Union forces being sent into the South.

On the home front there was abundant political strife resulting from a blending of politics and patriotism in varying degree. There was opposition to the war, including some interference with drafting by organized secret societies. Democrats charged Governor Morton with highhanded and arbitrary conduct of the war, and Morton's associates accused the Democrats of treasonable and obstructionist tactics. When the General Assembly gained a Democratic majority in 1862 and failed to give Morton the appropriations he wanted, he borrowed money from J. F. D. Lanier, New York financier, formerly of Madison, to carry on the state's war activities. Eventually the state sustained his independent action and repaid the loan.

The Civil War induced or speeded many significant changes. The common school system, which had been established during the fifties, suffered many setbacks and so retarded the development of schools at the secondary and college levels. Technological changes and increased



use of machinery were making rapid inroads on established practices of manufacturing. Even agriculture was responding to the greater use

of such labor-saving machinery as the reaper, the improved plow, and the threshing machine. Railroads were so extended that in the remaining years of the century our basic railway system was completed. Changes in transportation and manufacturing were powerful factors in furthering urbanization. The population of Northern Indiana grew rapidly. Although Indiana remained predominantly rural and agrarian after the war, as mechanization, industrialization, and urbanization waxed, pioneer ways and influences waned. A new society was taking shape.

The state had begun to provide asylums for the deaf and dumb, the blind, and the insane in 1843. The war produced its maimed, orphans, and widows, thereby enlarging the social responsibility and concern of the state government. Negro exclusion was ended, suffrage was extended, and the schools were opened to Negroes. Questions of tax assessments, regulation of industry and the railroads, labor-management relations, marketing, and the like thrust themselves into politics, despite the reluctance of politicians to deal forthrightly with them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Logan Esarey, *A History of Indiana* (1924), chapters 10-26, and *The Indiana Home* (1943); J. P. Dunn, *Indiana and Indianans* (1919) I, chapter 7-11, 19; Charles Roll, *Indiana, One Hundred and Fifty Years of American Development* (1931), I, parts 4-5, II, parts 6-8; *Readings in Indiana History* (1914), chapters 6-28; L. B. Ewbank, *Morgan's Raid in Indiana* (1918); Irving McKee, *The Trail of Death* (1941); R. W. Leopold, *Robert Dale Owen* (1940); W. C. Latta, *Outline History of Indiana Agriculture* (1938); Richard G. Boone, *A History of Education in Indiana* (1892, 1941); A. L. Kohlmeier, *The Old Northwest* (1938); Bernhard Knollenberg, *Pioneer Sketches of the Upper Whitewater Valley* (1945); W. D. Foulke, *Life of Oliver P. Morton* (1898), Vol. 1; Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., *Backwoods Utopias* (1950); R. C. Buley, *The Old Northwest, Pioneer Period, 1815-1840* (2 volumes, 1950); Kenneth Stampp, *Indiana Politics During the Civil War* (1949); Howard Johnson, *A Home in the Woods, Reminiscences of Early Marion County* (1951).

Indiana Magazine of History, Vol. 3, "Internal Improvements in Indiana," by G. S. Cottman; Vol. 14, "Secret Political Societies in the North During the Civil War," by Mayo Fesler; Vol. 15, "Indiana in the Mexican War," by R. C. Buley; Vol. 19, "Personal Politics in Indiana," by Adam Leonard.

IV. MODERN DEVELOPMENT, 1865-1953

Population Changes

Although the volume of population increase has been larger since the Civil War than preceding it, the percentage of growth has been less. The 1860 total of 1,350,000 inhabitants was nearly doubled by 1900, when the population reached 2,516,000. Between the turn of the century and 1940, the total climbed to 3,428,000, an increase of over 900,000, but less than 40 per cent, for this forty-year period. Indiana ranked twelfth in population among the states in 1950, with 3,934,000 people.

In 1860 more than 90 per cent of the people lived in rural areas, with only a few cities having a population in excess of 10,000. Indianapolis, the largest, had less than 19,000. A large majority of the population lived in the southern half of the state. Urbanization and a northward sweep have again characterized population trends since the Civil War. By 1900 about one-third of the population was urban, and by 1950 more than half, or about 60 per cent. At this latter date, most of the larger cities and the majority of the people were in the northern half of the state. The 1950 census showed Indianapolis with a population of 427,173; Gary, 133,911; Fort Wayne, 133,607; Evansville, 128,636; and South Bend, 115,911.

Immigration has played its part in increasing the population, as it did before the Civil War. Germans and Irish continued to come, but since about 1880 there has also been a marked increase in the arrival of Italians, Greeks, Hungarians, Poles, and other southern and southeastern Europeans. A Belgian colony has grown up in Mishawaka. Generally these people settled in the emerging industrial areas of the northern third of the state, and the greatest immigration occurred between 1880 and World War I. At the same time and during that war, there was an increase in the movement of Negroes to Indiana.

Foreign immigration slackened in the 1920's and virtually ceased during the depression of the 1930's. World War II caused a considerable movement of population. The northward trek of Southerners, both black and white, was accelerated by the demands of defense industries, and the war gave further impetus to urbanization within the state.

Agriculture Mechanized

Probably during no decade in our history did Hoosier farmers make so much economic advance as in the "glorious 1850's." Revolu-

tionary changes in industry since the Civil War have been accompanied by sweeping and significant changes in the methods of agriculture, yet the crops and stock remain very much the same. Corn and hogs have been the principal source of farm income since the advent of American settlers. As Logan Esarey put it in *The Indiana Home*: "We may sing the praise of all the heroes of Indiana from La Salle or George Rogers Clark to the present, but the prosperity of our state through the century has depended on Mr. Hog. In fat years and lean years . . . he has come up with his part, even though he does grunt about it considerably."

County agricultural societies and farm papers heralded the changes in farming methods even before the Civil War. They encouraged and promoted county fairs, selection of better seed, breeding of improved stock, rotation of crops, more use of both natural and commercial fertilizers, protection against erosion, better roads to reach markets, free elementary education, participation of farm organizations in politics,



etc. The first state fair was held at Indianapolis in 1852. The opening of Purdue University in 1874 provided a place where agricultural improvements might be tested. In recent decades farmers have become much more willing to accept new methods recommended by Purdue.

Steadily improved farm implements have decreased some of the exhausting hand labor and made farming more of a mechanized business. Better plows, reapers, and combines, cornpickers, tractors, milking machines, electric power, and improved stock and seed have all contributed to increase agricultural production. Rural housing has improved slowly as modern city conveniences were made available to farmers. In recent years tomatoes have become a crop of great importance, and egg and poultry production is now significantly large,

especially in northern Indiana. Receipts from soy beans show them rivaling corn as a money crop.

Although secondary to industry as a source of livelihood, farming is still of great economic and social significance. Indiana's urban population is distributed among many relatively small cities, and many of those inhabitants are close enough by birth or proximity to farms to cherish rural and agrarian traditions. The agricultural atmosphere has by no means disappeared.

Manufacturing and Mining

The evolution of manufacturing has been the principal factor changing the economic scene since the Civil War. This growth, in Indiana as in the United States generally, has been characterized by the emergence of the giant corporation, with mass production made possible by division of labor into small tasks which are easily learned and rapidly done. The increased production of goods at lower cost has made possible wider distribution and a consequent rise in our general standard of living.

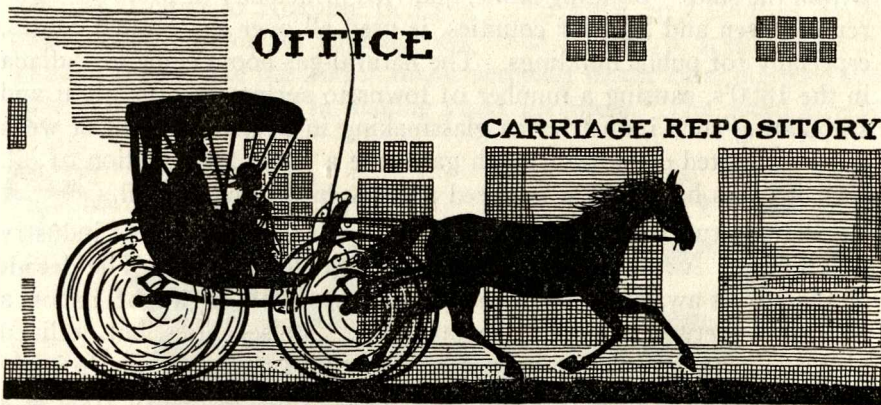
In 1860 the aggregate value of manufactured products was close to \$43,000,000, with approximately 21,300 wage earners employed. The ten leading industries in the order of their rank were: flour milling, lumber, meats, liquor, machinery, textiles, carriages and wagons, boots and shoes, leather, and furniture. The total value of milling products exceeded the combined value of the eight next largest industries. Manufacturing was concentrated principally in counties bordering on the Ohio River or along the National Road.

By 1900 the value of manufactured goods had jumped to \$378,120,000, while the number of laborers had climbed to almost 156,000. Output per worker had increased from the growing use of machinery and greater division of labor. The ten leading industries at the end of the century ranked as follows: meats, flour milling, lumber, liquor, iron and steel, railroad cars, foundry and machine shop products, carriages and wagons, glass, and printing and paper. Manufacturing was scattered widely over the state, and southern Indiana had lost its primacy.

By 1947 the value of manufactured products had risen to almost \$3,000,000,000, with 548,000 wage earners employed. In addition to machinery, automatic power was increasing production without so many hands, but new industries were developing constantly and offering new opportunities for labor. The leading industries of Indiana at this time reflect the impact of the industrialization which has taken

place in this century. Among the largest industries are iron and steel, automobiles and automobile parts, electrical machinery, railway car repairs, meats, furniture, liquor, and coke. Meanwhile, the shift of industry continued from southern to central and northern Indiana. The phenomenal rise of Gary, founded in 1906, has helped to make the Calumet region the leading industrial section of the state. However, St. Joseph, Elkhart, Allen, Vigo, Marion, Wayne and Vanderburgh counties contribute important parts of the aggregate.

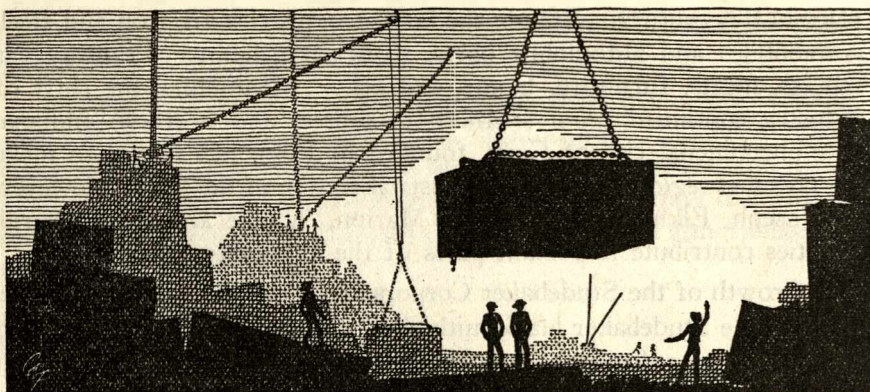
Growth of the Studebaker Corporation serves as a vivid example. In 1852 the Studebaker blacksmith shop at South Bend began making wagons. It was then only one of hundreds of blacksmith shops, and in 1860 was valued at \$10,000. By 1900, 2,500 employees were en-



gaged in making wagons and carriages that brought sales of nearly \$4,000,000. In 1940 there were nearly 8,000 employees, with total sales of over \$84,000,000, chiefly of automobiles and trucks. The corporation's figures for 1945, the last year of World War II, revealed a peak employment of 23,600 and sales amounting to nearly \$213,000,000.

Access to lake and railroad transportation, a centralized geographical location, and relative safety from air bombing made Indiana a booming center of industrial output during World War II, which in turn gave extra stimulus to industrialization. Indiana ranks ninth in industrial production among the states.

Though never a leading mining state, Indiana has produced considerable coal, stone, gas, and oil. Coal mining is scattered in the southwestern part of the state, and the soft coal is consumed largely



within the state. Building stone, quarried principally in Monroe, Lawrence, Owen and Spencer counties, is used all over the United States, especially for public buildings. The natural-gas boom came to Indiana in the 1880's, causing a number of towns to spring up over night and stimulating such industries as glassmaking in Muncie, but most wells were of limited duration. With gas came a limited production of oil. Recent years have seen a renewed activity in drilling for oil.

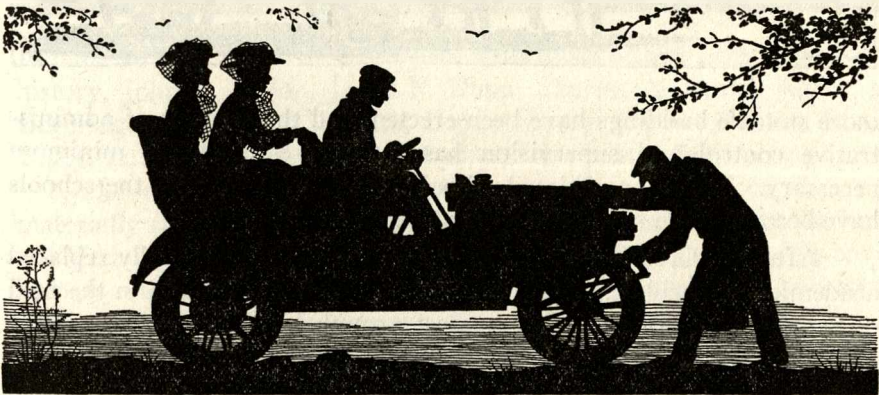
The status of labor has changed with this development of industry and mining. A few trade or craft unions existed in 1865. The decade of the 1870's awakened class consciousness. The Knights of Labor, a national society, took root in Indiana in the late seventies, but declined a decade later as the American Federation of Labor grew. Probably the first state federation of labor was formed in Indiana in 1885 at a meeting of trade union delegates. In 1893 the right of workers to join unions was recognized and protected by law, and four years later a state labor commission was created to investigate labor disputes. Most industrial workers were ineligible for membership in the craft unions of the state federation, however, but they were rapidly organized by the industrial unions that have flourished since the thirties. One of the first advocates of industrial unionism was Eugene V. Debs, a Hoosier. The unions have proved helpful in securing improved working conditions, safety inspections, fewer working hours, and higher wages. Despite some lagging, labor has shared in the advancing standard of living.

Transportation Development

Improvement in transportation has accompanied the development of industry and mining and even encouraged it. Railroad lines that

totaled about 2,200 miles in 1860 have spread out like a spider web until there are 6,600 miles of rails in the state today. Her location between the Great Lakes and the Ohio River gives Indiana the benefit of the main continental routes from East to West. Roads have replaced the rivers and canals as highways, and trucks and busses have taken the place of flatboats and steamships. Today Indiana has over 76,000 miles of roads of all kinds. Yet the Ohio River was a determining factor in the ability of Evansville to manufacture and deliver small fighting craft during the recent war. Interurbans enjoyed great popularity during the first four decades of this century, before bowing out to competition from trucks, busses, and passenger cars.

One of the first automobiles, or "horseless carriages," in the United States was invented and tried out in Indiana. It was built by Elwood Haynes at Kokomo in 1894. The same year Charles Black made an automobile in Indianapolis. For a time it appeared as if Indiana would take the lead in manufacturing motor cars, but now the state is more engrossed in making parts for them. The social effects



of the automobile era have been tremendous. With almost every family owning its own method of transportation, provincial thinking has been broadened by enlarged horizons, the accidental-death rate has soared and crime has become motorized, rural isolation has decreased, suburban city living has increased, the pace of living has been intensified.

Along with transportation, the improvement in the telegraph and the invention of the telephone, the radio and television have enlarged the world in which each individual lives. The ease of instantaneous communication and the shrinkage of distance inevitably must make all Hoosiers members of the world community.

Modern Education and Churches

Though the Civil War disrupted and retarded the common school advance, the battle for favorable public opinion had largely been won. Since then common school sessions have been lengthened, elementary education has been made compulsory, teachers have become better trained and better taught, new subjects have been added to the curriculum and old ones revamped, school "activities" have greatly increased,



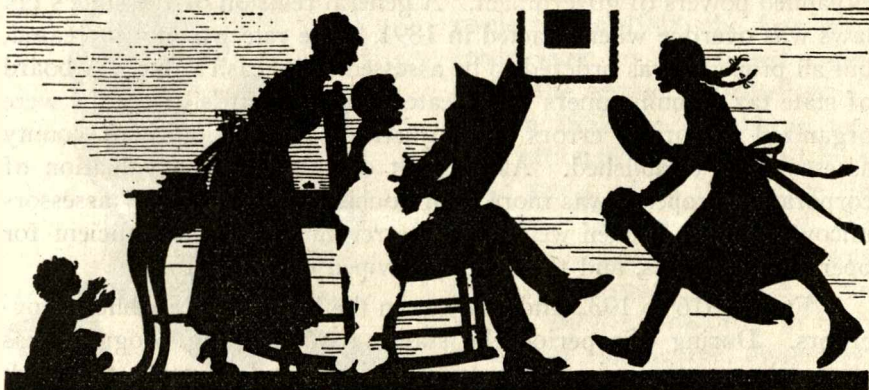
more suitable buildings have been erected, and the amount of administrative control and supervision has at least equaled the minimum necessary. With consolidated schools in most rural areas, the schools have become more standardized and departmentalized.

After the Civil War the free public high school gradually replaced academies and private schools and won a dominant position in the field of secondary education. Its greatest growth has been in the present century, with the common schools serving as "feeders."

The state university and most of the colleges founded by church denominations were established before the Civil War. Indiana State Teachers College was started at Terre Haute in 1870 to prepare elementary teachers, and Ball State Teachers College was opened at Muncie for the same purpose in 1917. Purdue University was organized in 1874 as a result of a federal land grant act to promote education in agriculture and industry. A few more church colleges were founded. During the last several decades, the colleges and universities have generally added teacher training to their other educational programs. College enrollment, fed by high-school graduates, increased notably after the turn of the century, and after each of the World Wars. In the expanding educational program research has been given greater

recognition. Adult education has received attention in extension courses, library expansion, and club work.

In literary production, Indiana has achieved distinction and a reputation. From Edward Eggleston through James Whitcomb Riley, Charles Major, and Lew Wallace to Gene Stratton Porter, Meredith Nicholson, George Ade, Booth Tarkington, and Theodore Dreiser,



Indiana authors have held their own with those of any other state. In history, John B. Dillon, Jacob P. Dunn, Charles A. Beard, Albert J. Beveridge, John Clark Ridpath, Logan Esarey, Claude Bowers, R. C. Buley, and others have made important contributions.

The religious composition of the population has not changed materially since the 1850's. The Protestant denominations in the lead are Methodist, Christian, Baptist, and Lutheran. Sunday Schools have become established institutions. Roman Catholics are more numerous than any one Protestant denomination, and account for about 23 per cent of the total church membership in Indiana. Greek Catholics and Hebrew Congregations have appeared as the result of recent European immigration. The Evangelical United Brethren, Dunkers, Mennonites, and Friends survive as minorities. The ratio of church membership to total population stood at 42 per cent in 1936.

Expanding State Government

After the Civil War the Democratic party in Indiana made a quick recovery, despite its taint of treason nationally, and captured the governorship in 1872, 1876, 1884, 1892, 1908, and 1912.

This switching from one major party to the other is typical of the Indiana political scene. Both parties commonly chart "safe and sane" policies which are more conservative than those of the national

government in Washington. The merit system for administrative personnel, including permanent tenure, has not made much advance, and the "spoils system" of awarding jobs to faithful party supporters has its persistent advocates.

Although the state was forbidden to go in debt, a "temporary" debt was carried from year to year, along with the rising costs for expanded powers of government. A general revision of the state's tax laws was overdue when enacted in 1891. The rate was not increased, but all property was ordered to be assessed at its cash value. A board of state tax commissioners was created, county boards of review were organized to correct errors and injustices, and the office of county assessor was established. As a result of this law, the valuation of corporation property was more than doubled and the county assessors uncovered much hidden wealth. State revenue was now sufficient for operating expenses, and the debt was wiped out in 1915.

From 1916 to 1932 Indiana was in the hands of Republican governors. During this period the state's road building program was started by creation of a highway commission. To finance the work a tax was laid on gasoline in 1923. Growing concern for the dwindling natural resources of the state prompted a combination of the state geologist, entomologist, oil inspector, fish and game commission, state parks committee, and the board of forestry into a new department of conservation in 1919. Since then Indiana has achieved a leading position in its conservation work and in the development of state parks as recreation areas. In common with a number of other states, Indiana suffered disgracefully from the Ku Klux Klan in the middle 1920's, but this secret nativistic movement was smashed by courageous newspapers that aroused public opinion against its intolerance and political pressure.

A Democratic administration was inaugurated in 1933, in the midst of general economic depression. Immediate legislation reorganized all state departments, centralizing power in the hands of the governor. This act was repealed in 1941, and a new means of administering the departments provided. The state Supreme Court invalidated the revision, with the result that most departments and commissions reverted to their pre-1933 status. Following the pattern of the national government, responsibilities of state government were enlarged by the creation of a department of public welfare in 1936. The tax base was broadened by enactment of a state income tax law in 1933. In 1945 a Republican governor took office. Public health laws of the state were greatly strengthened, and money appropriated for broader supervision, research, service, and dissemination of infor-

mation. The state's share of the public school burden was heavily increased by a new salary schedule enacted for teachers. Repairs and new construction, postponed during the war years, were gradually



Governor Craig

undertaken by state departments and institutions. In a personal triumph former Governor Henry F. Schricker, a Democrat, was re-elected in 1948, the first governor ever to be elected twice under the second constitution.

In 1952 the Republican victory nationally was matched by a clean sweep of all state offices in Indiana. George N. Craig, the second youngest man to serve, was elected governor, and the party won a lopsided majority in both houses of the General Assembly. Governor Craig began his term with vigorous efforts to centralize responsibility in state government administration through a "cabinet" of department heads. The legislature enacted only a few of his recommendations.

In National Politics and World Affairs

Because of the relatively equal strength of the two major political parties in Indiana, the state's electoral vote has frequently been sought by the nomination of vice-presidents from Indiana or the promise of cabinet secretaryships to Indianans. "As Indiana goes, so goes the nation" was a safe forecast till recently, for since 1850 the state has cast its electoral vote for the winning presidential candidate every time except in 1876 (where the outcome was doubted), 1916, 1940 (cast for Wendell Willkie, a native son), 1944 and 1948. Colfax, Hendricks, Fairbanks, and Marshall have been vice-presidents from this state, and Benjamin Harrison was living in Indiana when elected President. Many Hoosiers have served in other high federal posts.

As the party which had "saved the Union," the Republicans remained in power nationally until 1885, but state issues and personalities were not always dominated by national considerations. Meanwhile,

the rapid growth of the trans-Mississippi West, emerging industrialization, and two depressions turned attention from reconstruction of the South to questions of money and tariffs, regulation of railroads and trusts, labor and management strife, relief and social security, and allied issues. Desire for reform stimulated the birth of new political parties—Greenback, Populist, Prohibition, Socialist, Progressive—which found adherents in Indiana. Although the state made few general concessions to such groups, various demands of theirs became effective through legislation by the major parties.

In national affairs, the years from 1901 to 1917, commonly called the Progressive Era, brought increased governmental regulation of economic life. Senator Albert J. Beveridge, of Indiana, was one of the leaders in this movement. Certain political changes, such as the constitutional amendments allowing the direct election of United States Senators and the levying of income taxes, brought the government closer to the people. The Socialist party had its birth in Indianapolis in 1901 through the initiative of Eugene V. Debs, and he was the party's candidate for President four times. Yet the whole progressive movement induced fewer changes in the state than in the nation.

World War I was at first viewed as another European conflict, and both the German and Irish elements in Indiana objected to taking the side of Great Britain. By 1917, however, Hoosier public opinion was hostile to Germany and ready to support war against her. Indiana furnished 118,000 men and women to the armed forces and suffered the loss of 3,354, a much smaller sacrifice than the Civil War demanded.

Inauguration of Franklin D. Roosevelt as President in 1933 ushered in two decades of Democratic domination of the Federal Government. Legislation regulating business in an effort to overcome the depression was greatly expanded, and governmental authority increased at Washington more rapidly than it did in the state capitols.

Because the first World War was still a fresh memory and isolationism an attractive policy in the 1930's, Indiana watched the rise of dictatorships in Europe without serious apprehension until Nazi Germany struck its neighbors. Even then the belief was widely held that ideas and values cherished here were not threatened. There was very little pro-German sympathy, however. Once more German aims and methods infuriated Americans, and when the Japanese struck at Hawaii, Indiana was ready to plunge into war again. It furnished about 340,000 men and women to the armed forces, of whom almost 10,000 gave their lives. In addition, Hoosiers lent to the Federal

Government nearly half a billion dollars, and state industries turned to war production with speed and enlarged capacity. Several training camps, air fields, and ordnance depots were established in Indiana.

With the return of peace, greater participation by the United States on the world stage was certain from the tremendous role it had played in the war. The general support given to the United Nations has not always been implemented by a strong foreign policy or by domestic policies consistent with our position as a world power. As the allies in war have quarreled in peace, the United States is being forced to define its stand and defend its principles. Although there has been some resurgence of nationalism, coupled with disappointment in the United Nations and a growing antagonism to Communism, there is as yet no indication of a trend toward such isolation as characterized the early 1920's. Even the 1952 presidential campaign revealed both parties in fairly general agreement over a foreign policy of co-operation in world leadership. Indiana public opinion recognizes that the country is committed for its own safety and well-being to an active and significant involvement in world problems.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Logan Esarey, *A History of Indiana* (1924), chapters 27-38; J. P. Dunn, *Indiana and Indianans* (1919), I, chapters 12-18; George S. Cottman, *Indiana, Its History, Constitution and Present Government* (1936), chapters 14-20; Charles Roll, *Indiana, One Hundred and Fifty Years of American Development* (1931), II, parts 9-10; D. L. Chambers, *A Hoosier History* (1933), pp. 35-48; Cedric C. Cummins, *Indiana Public Opinion and the World War, 1914-1917* (1945); Stephen S. Visher, *Economic Geography of Indiana* (1923); W. C. Latta, *Outline History of Indiana Agriculture* (1938); Richard G. Boone, *A History of Education in Indiana* (1892, 1941); J. A. Batchelor, *An Economic History of the Indiana Oolitic Limestone Industry* (1944); Smallzried and Roberts, *More Than You Promise* (1942); George Starr, *Industrial Development of Indiana* (1937); Meredith Nicholson, *The Hoosiers* (1900); Ray Ginger, *The Bending Cross: a Biography of Eugene Victor Debs* (1949); R. E. Banta (comp.), *Indiana Authors and Their Books* (1949); Howard H. Peckham and Shirley Snyder, *Letters from Fighting Hoosiers* (1948); John B. Martin, *Indiana, An Interpretation* (1947).

Indiana Magazine of History, vol. 4, "Natural Gas in Indiana," by Margaret Wynn; vol. 11, "The Indiana State Federation of Labor," by Ralph W. Van Valer; vols. 14, 15, "The Populist Party in Indiana,"

by Ernest D. Stewart; vol. 16, "The Progressive Party in Indiana," by Carl Painter; vol. 25, "Foreigners and Their Influence in Indiana," by Robert L. LaFollette.

NOTICE TO TEACHERS

The Indiana Historical Bureau has available for use in the schools two series of illustrated historical leaflets. One set is written in the fourth grade vocabulary and can be used at that level or in the fifth grade. The series has been edited by Professor Joy M. Lacey, of Indiana State Teachers College, and endorsed by the State Department of Public Instruction. The titles are:

1. The First People in Indiana
2. The French in Indiana
3. Pioneer Living in Indiana
4. Travel in Indiana Long Ago
5. Good Times of Young Pioneers

For junior high school students the Bureau is preparing a series of leaflets on leaders in Indiana history, as a biographical approach to the state's development. The first three will dramatize the activities of George Rogers Clark, Chief Little Turtle, and William Henry Harrison. The Bureau also has available an illustrated pamphlet entitled "The Indiana Capitol, Its Predecessors and Related Buildings," and a large map called "Historic Indiana to 1875," showing development of the state, which can be worked on and colored. In general the map can be supplied at the rate of two or three copies to a classroom.

For both intermediate grades and junior high, the Bureau offers the "State Emblems" printed in color.

These items are available free of charge, but a refund of postage is asked on orders in quantity.

The Historical Bureau sponsors and encourages the Indiana Junior Historical Society, a federation of high school history clubs. Organization of new clubs will be aided.

Indiana Historical Bureau
State Library & Historical Bldg.
Indianapolis 4, Indiana

*If You Like History You
Will Enjoy Membership in the*

Indiana Historical Society

REFERENCE
DO NOT CIRCULATE

INQUIRE OF THE SECRETARY
STATE LIBRARY & HISTORICAL BLDG.
INDIANAPOLIS 4, IND.